

14 **Abstract.** A new weakly coupled land data assimilation (WCLDA) system based on the four-dimensional
15 ensemble variational (4D_{En}Var) method is developed and applied to the fully coupled Energy Exascale
16 Earth System Model version 2 (E3SMv2). The dimension-reduced projection four-dimensional
17 variational (DRP-4DVar) method is employed to implement 4DVar using the ensemble technique instead
18 of the adjoint technique. With an interest in providing initial conditions for decadal climate predictions,
19 monthly mean anomalies of soil moisture and temperature from the Global Land Data Assimilation
20 System (GLDAS) reanalysis from 1980 to 2016 are assimilated into the land component of E3SMv2
21 within the coupled modeling framework with a one-month assimilation window. The coupled
22 assimilation experiment is evaluated using multiple metrics, including the cost function, assimilation
23 efficiency index, correlation, root mean square error (RMSE) and bias, and compared with a control
24 simulation without land data assimilation. The WCLDA system yields improved simulation of soil
25 moisture and temperature compared with the control simulation, with improvements found throughout
26 the soil layers and in many regions of the global land. In terms of both soil moisture and temperature, the
27 assimilation experiment outperforms the control simulation with reduced RMSE and higher temporal
28 correlation in many regions, especially in South America, Central Africa, Australia, and large parts of
29 Eurasia. Furthermore, significant improvements are also found in reproducing the time evolution of the
30 2012 U.S. Midwest drought, highlighting the crucial role of land surface in drought lifecycle. The
31 WCLDA system is intended to be a foundational resource for research to investigate land-derived climate
32 predictability.

33 **1 Introduction**

34 The intrinsic chaos of the atmosphere limits traditional weather forecasting to roughly two weeks
35 (Simmons and Hollingsworth, 2002). The feasibility of atmospheric predictability beyond two weeks lies
36 with the interactions of the atmosphere with slowly varying components of the Earth system such as the
37 ocean or land surface, or from predictable external forcings (Guo et al., 2012). Climate prediction can
38 therefore be conceptually divided into both an initial value and a forced boundary value problem (Collins
39 and Allen, 2002; Conil et al., 2007). One of the biggest technical challenges for improving the quality of
40 climate predictions is the initialization of coupled models from observations (Taylor et al., 2012).

41 Much work has been devoted to initializing climate system models for practicable decadal climate
42 predictions (DCPs). These models couple various components, such as models of the atmosphere, ocean,
43 sea ice, land and river. Due to their complexity, coupled models are often more susceptible to initial
44 conditions (ICs) than their individual model components, underscoring the importance of data
45 assimilation (DA) (Sakaguchi et al., 2012). The application of DA methods is essential to incorporate
46 reanalysis data into the components of coupled model and produce the optimal ICs to improve DCPs.
47 The initialization for DCPs uses both uncoupled DA and coupled data assimilation (CDA) methods.
48 Uncoupled DA performs DA under the framework of an individual component model (e.g., standalone
49 land surface model forced by atmospheric observations or reanalysis data rather than coupled with an
50 atmospheric model), and then the uncoupled DA analyses from different individual components are
51 combined to form the ICs of a coupled model (Zhang et al., 2020). For example, most existing reanalysis
52 data were produced using uncoupled DA approaches, and these reanalysis datasets are then directly used
53 to initialize DCPs in some studies (Du et al., 2012; Bellucci et al., 2013). However, such uncoupled DA
54 often exhibits poor consistency among the ICs of different component models, and eventually produces
55 low prediction skills (Balmaseda et al., 2009; Boer et al., 2016; Ardilouze et al., 2017).

56 To obtain balanced multi-component ICs in coupled models, recent studies focus on the
57 development of CDA methods under the coupled modeling framework (Penny and Hamill, 2017; He et
58 al., 2020a). The purpose of CDA is to produce balanced and coherent ICs for all components within the
59 climate system by incorporating reanalysis information from one or more components in the coupled
60 model, providing great potential for improving seamless climate predictions (Dee et al., 2014). Some

61 studies underscore the superior advantages of CDA over traditional uncoupled DA methods (Lea et al.,
62 2015; Zhang et al., 2005). CDA methods are categorized into two main types: weakly coupled data
63 assimilation (WCDA) and strongly coupled data assimilation (SCDA). WCDA assimilates the
64 observations or existing reanalysis into the respective component of the coupled model and then transfers
65 reanalysis information to the other components through the coupled model integration (He et al., 2020b;
66 Zhang et al., 2020). Considering that sequential DA encompasses both the analysis and the forecast steps,
67 WCDA allows no direct influence of reanalysis information from a single component to other
68 components in the analysis step as the cross-component background error covariances are not used, but
69 coupling in the forecast step allows interactions across different components during the model integration
70 (Browne et al., 2019) and propagates reanalysis information to other components. In contrast, SCDA
71 utilizes cross-component background error covariances to directly assimilate reanalysis information from
72 one component into all components, treating the entire Earth system model as one unified system (Penny
73 et al., 2019). Furthermore, similar to WCDA, SCDA also allows coupling in the forecast step to propagate
74 reanalysis information from one component to the other components (Yoshida and Kalnay, 2018).
75 Several studies indicate that SCDA typically exhibits more pronounced improvements in assimilation
76 performance relative to WCDA (Smith et al., 2015; Sluka et al., 2016). However, the application of
77 SCDA poses substantial technical challenges, particularly in the establishment of effective cross-
78 component background error covariances. Consequently, the majority of contemporary CDA systems
79 still utilize the WCDA framework.

80 Recent research efforts have started to implement the CDA system to initialize DCPs, using a
81 diverse range of DA techniques from simple to complex. The simplest method is nudging which adjusts
82 the model states towards the observations or existing reanalysis (Hoke and Anthes, 1976; Zhang et al.,
83 2020). Although the nudging method is time-saving and easy to implement, its application in CDA is
84 restricted primarily due to the limited types of observations and the required interpolation of observations
85 at every time step of model integration (He et al., 2017). Previous studies have developed advanced CDA
86 systems using variational and filtering approaches, such as the three-dimensional variational data
87 assimilation (3DVar) (Fujii et al., 2009; Yao et al., 2021), and ensemble-based techniques like the
88 ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF) (Zhang et al., 2007). The former generally utilizes the stationary

89 background error covariance and assimilates observations sequentially (Lin et al., 2017). In contrast, the
90 latter uses the flow-dependent forecast error covariance and recursively integrates observations into the
91 model (Lei and Hacker, 2015). Several studies also show encouraging progress in constructing CDA
92 systems using four-dimensional variational data assimilation (4DVar) method (Smith et al., 2015; Fowler
93 and Lawless, 2016). The objective of 4DVar is to optimize four-dimensional model states and provide a
94 compatible temporal trajectory that matches observational records across each assimilation window
95 (Mochizuki et al., 2016). The 4DVar method is an advanced assimilation technique that exhibits
96 superiority over other assimilation techniques like nudging and 3DVar in multiple aspects. Initial shocks
97 that influence prediction skills can be significantly minimized by the 4DVar approach due to the
98 dynamical consistency between the model and ICs (Sugiura et al., 2008). However, it is difficult to apply
99 the 4DVar method for CDA systems in the fully coupled model because of the challenge in adjoint
100 integration of the coupled model and its high computational cost in the analysis step. Finally, to capitalize
101 on the strengths of both ensemble and variational techniques, recent studies focus on developing new
102 hybrid data assimilation methods (Wang et al., 2010; Buehner et al., 2018). The hybrid approach utilizes
103 an ensemble forecast to generate flow-dependent forecast error covariances and presents a way to
104 perform 4DVar optimization without the need for tangent linear and adjoint models (Lorenc et al., 2015).
105 However, most studies on CDA have focused on assimilating observations or reanalysis data of ocean,
106 atmosphere and even sea ice (He et al., 2017; Li et al., 2021; Kimmritz et al., 2018). There have been
107 relatively few instances of CDA studies assimilating land observations or land reanalysis data.

108 In this study, we introduce the development of the 4DEnVar-based weakly coupled land data
109 assimilation (WCLDA) system for the Energy Exascale Earth System Model version 2 (E3SMv2) (Golaz
110 et al., 2022). The 4DEnVar method in this WCLDA system is the dimension-reduced projection 4DVar
111 (DRP-4DVar; Wang et al., 2010) which utilizes the ensemble technique as an alternative to the adjoint
112 technique for implementing 4DVar. In this WCLDA system, monthly mean anomalies of soil moisture
113 and temperature from a global land reanalysis product are assimilated into the land component of a
114 coupled climate model in the analysis step, and subsequently during the forecast step, the land reanalysis
115 information incorporated into the ICs of the land component is propagated to the other components (e.g.,
116 atmosphere and ocean) through the fully coupled model integration and influences the ICs of all

117 components for the next assimilation window. The primary goal of the WCLDA system is intended to be
118 a foundational resource for exploring predictability of the Earth system by the E3SM community,
119 specifically focusing on understanding the sources of predictability provided by land versus ocean, with
120 an initial focus on DCPs. This WCLDA system also provides the groundwork for future actionable
121 predictions of Earth system variability using E3SM.

122 The objective of this paper is to introduce the implementation of the 4DEnVar-based WCLDA
123 system for the land component of E3SMv2. In Section 2, we provide an overview of the E3SMv2 model,
124 describe the 4DEnVar methodology in detail and outline the framework of the 4DEnVar-based WCLDA
125 system. Preliminary evaluation of the WCLDA system is presented in Section 3. Finally, conclusions are
126 discussed in Section 4.

127

128 **2 Methods**

129 **2.1 Model Description**

130 The model used in this study is a relatively new state-of-the-art Earth system model known as
131 Energy Exascale Earth System Model version 2 (E3SMv2), supported by the U.S. Department of Energy
132 (DOE) to improve actionable Earth system predictions and projections (Leung et al., 2020). The
133 atmospheric component is the E3SM Atmosphere Model version 2 (EAMv2), which is built on the
134 spectral-element atmospheric dynamical core with 72 vertical levels (Dennis et al., 2012; Taylor et al.,
135 2020). At the standard resolution, EAMv2 is applied on a cubed sphere with a grid spacing of ~100 km
136 for the dynamics. The ocean component is the Model for Prediction Across Scales-Ocean (MPAS-O),
137 which applies the underlying spatial discretization to the primitive equations with 60 layers using a z-
138 star vertical coordinate (Petersen et al., 2018; Reckinger et al., 2015). The sea ice component is MPAS-
139 SI, which shares the same Voronoi mesh with MPAS-O, with mesh spacing varying between 60km in the
140 mid-latitudes and 30 km at the equator and poles (Golaz et al., 2022). The land component is the E3SM
141 Land Model version 2 (ELMv2), which is based on the Community Land Model version 4.5 (CLM4.5)
142 (Oleson et al. 2013). Simulations are run in a satellite phenology mode with prescribed leaf area index,
143 and the prescribed vegetation distribution has been updated for better consistency between land use and
144 changes in plant functional types described by Golaz et al. (2022). The river transport component is the

145 Model for Scale Adaptive River Transport version 2 (MOSARTv2), which provides detailed
146 representation of riverine hydrologic variables (Li et al., 2013). These five components exchange fluxes
147 through the top-level coupling driver version 7 (CPL7) (Craig et al., 2012). Further details on the
148 E3SMv2 model are described in Golaz et al. (2022).

149

150 **2.2 Datasets**

151 Monthly mean soil moisture and soil temperature data in a total of ten soil layers are produced by
152 the Global Land Data Assimilation System (GLDAS; Rodell et al., 2004). The GLDAS product generates
153 optimal fields of land surface states and fluxes in near-real time by forcing multiple offline land surface
154 models with observation-based data fields. These reliable and high-resolution global land surface datasets
155 from GLDAS are extensively utilized in weather and climate studies, hydrometeorological investigations
156 and water cycle research (Chen et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2018). The GLDAS datasets have been available
157 globally at high spatial resolution since January 1979 and can be accessed through the Goddard Earth
158 Science Data and Information Service Center. For more consistency with ELMv2, we utilize GLDAS
159 data produced by CLM. In contrast to decadal timescales, data signals with temporal resolutions shorter
160 than one month can potentially introduce undesirable noise, which can adversely affect DCPs when high
161 temporal resolution data are assimilated into the ICs. Moreover, it is very computationally demanding to
162 assimilate complex actual observations in the initialization for DCPs that requires long-term DA cycles.
163 Therefore, similar to most existing initialization approaches for DCPs that assimilate reanalysis data, this
164 study describes the implementation of a data assimilation approach for initializing DCPs by assimilating
165 monthly mean GLDAS data within the one-month assimilation window.

166 Monthly mean surface soil moisture data from the Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer
167 (AMSR) and land surface temperature data from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectrometer
168 (MODIS) are utilized for validation. (1) The AMSR data provides surface soil moisture estimations by
169 measuring the microwave emission from the Earth's surface (Njoku et al., 2003). The soil moisture data
170 from AMSR are widely used in scientific research to study surface water cycles, drought conditions and
171 hydrologic modeling (Du et al., 2019; McCabe et al., 2008). (2) MODIS is an essential instrument
172 onboard the Terra and Aqua satellite platforms (Remer et al., 2005). The MODIS datasets provide

173 comprehensive global observations describing atmospheric, terrestrial and oceanic conditions, including
174 land surface temperature, vegetation indices and cloud properties (Justice et al., 2002). The MODIS
175 products are extensively utilized for monitoring environmental changes and supporting climate change
176 research (Gao et al., 2015; Mertes et al., 2015).

177 Current initialization techniques are broadly classified into two categories: full-field assimilation
178 with reanalysis values, and anomaly assimilation with reanalysis anomalies (Hu et al., 2020; Polkova et
179 al., 2019). The full-field assimilation is commonly performed to reduce the influence of systematic model
180 biases by replacing the initial model state with the optimal available estimate of the reanalysis state (Volpi
181 et al., 2017). However, the model trajectory tends to drift away from the observations and revert to the
182 model's inherent preferred state because of model deficiencies (Smith et al., 2013). This problem is
183 partially addressed with the anomaly assimilation by assimilating the reanalysis anomalies added to the
184 model climatology (Carrassi et al., 2014). In this study, we conduct the anomaly assimilation for the
185 WCLDA system with bias correction applied to GLDAS data before assimilation. For bias correction,
186 the difference between GLDAS data and its long-term average is calculated as anomalies and then added
187 to the simulated model climatology.

188

189 **2.3 Data Assimilation Scheme**

190 The 4DEnVar algorithm in this study is based on the DRP-4DVar technique, which is an efficient
191 pathway for applying 4DVar through using the ensemble method rather than the adjoint technique (Wang
192 et al., 2010). The DRP-4DVar method generates the optimal estimation in the sample space through
193 aligning the observations with ensemble samples along the coupled model trajectory (Liu et al., 2011).

194 DRP-4DVar is an economical approach that minimizes the cost function of the standard 4DVar by
195 using the ensemble technique instead of the adjoint technique (Wang et al., 2010). The background error
196 covariance matrix B is estimated using the pure ensemble covariance. The ensemble members originate
197 from historical or ensemble forecasts. Considering the high computational cost of ensemble forecasts for
198 the coupled model in our study, we utilize outputs from the pre-industrial control (PI-CTRL) experiment
199 of E3SMv2 to generate ensemble members. The instantaneous state at the beginning of each month and
200 the corresponding monthly mean state of this month from the 100-year balanced PI-CTRL simulation

201 are used as the samples of initial condition (x_i) and forecast samples (y_i). The corresponding perturbation
 202 samples are calculated as $x'_i = x_i - \bar{x}$ and $y'_i = y_i - \bar{y}$, where \bar{x} and \bar{y} are the 100-year average
 203 values of x_i and y_i at the same month, respectively. Then, m pairs of perturbation samples
 204 $(x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, \dots, x'_m)$ and $(y'_1, y'_2, y'_3, \dots, y'_m)$ are selected at each DA analysis step according to the
 205 correlations between y'_i and the observational innovation $y'_{obs} = y_{obs} - y_b$, ensuring that each y'
 206 sample is selected independently of the other samples in the ensemble. In this study, $m = 30$. Then the
 207 estimation of the background error covariance matrix B is represented by the formula in Eq. (1), utilizing
 208 the selected x' samples. We implement both horizontal and vertical localization to reduce sampling
 209 errors due to the finite ensemble size and to alleviate the spurious remote influence from distant grid
 210 points. Our approach to horizontal localization is to apply a distance-dependent weighting function to
 211 the background error covariance. The vertical localization is employed to limit the influence of reanalysis
 212 information on specific soil layers. Please refer to Wang et al. (2018) for more detailed descriptions of
 213 the localization methodology in our study.

$$214 \quad \begin{cases} B = bb^T \\ b = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m-1}} \times (x'_1 - \bar{x}', x'_2 - \bar{x}', x'_3 - \bar{x}', \dots, x'_m - \bar{x}') \\ \bar{x}' = \frac{1}{m} (x'_1 + x'_2 + x'_3 + \dots + x'_m) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

215 According to Wang et al. (2010), DRP-4DVar produces the analysis increment (x'_a) by minimizing
 216 the 4DVar cost function in the incremental form (Courtier et al., 1994):

$$217 \quad \begin{cases} J(x'_a) = \min_{x'} J(x') \\ J(x') = \frac{1}{2} (x')^T B^{-1} x' + \frac{1}{2} (\tilde{y}' - \tilde{y}'_{obs})^T (\tilde{y}' - \tilde{y}'_{obs}) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

218 Here $x' = x - x_b$ represents the increment of model variables relative to the background; $\tilde{y}'_{obs} =$
 219 $r^{-1} y'_{obs} = r^{-1} (y_{obs} - y_b)$ denotes the weighted observational innovation for monthly mean anomalies
 220 of soil moisture and temperature, and $R = rr^T$ is the observational error covariance matrix that is
 221 usually diagonal; $\tilde{y}' = r^{-1} y' = r^{-1} (y - y_b)$ is the weighted projection of the increment (x') onto the
 222 observation space; the superscript T represents the transpose.

223 To simplify the calculation of the minimization, the increment of model state variables x' and the
 224 corresponding weighted observation increment \tilde{y}' are projected onto the dimension-reduced sample
 225 space through the following projection transformations:

$$\begin{cases} x' = P_x \alpha \\ \tilde{y}' = P_y \alpha \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

where α is the m -dimension column vector containing the weight coefficients $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_m)$; P_x and P_y denote the projection matrices that incorporate the initial condition perturbations and the corresponding monthly mean samples as follows:

$$\begin{cases} P_x = (x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, \dots, x'_m) \\ P_y = (\tilde{y}'_1, \tilde{y}'_2, \tilde{y}'_3, \dots, \tilde{y}'_m) \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where $\tilde{y}'_i = r^{-1}y'_i$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots, m$). Then the original 4DVar cost function defined in Eq. (2) is transformed into the following new cost function and the analysis can be computed in the sample space by minimizing this new cost function:

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{J}(\alpha_a) = \min_{\alpha} \tilde{J}(\alpha) \\ \tilde{J}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T B_{\alpha}^{-1} \alpha + \frac{1}{2} (P_y \alpha - \tilde{y}'_{obs})^T (P_y \alpha - \tilde{y}'_{obs}) \\ x_a = x_b + x'_a = x_b + P_x \alpha_a \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

The solution to this minimization problem is formulated as:

$$\alpha_a = (B_{\alpha}^{-1} + P_y^T P_y)^{-1} P_y^T \tilde{y}'_{obs} \quad (6)$$

In this study, the DRP-4DVar-based WCLDA system is used to incorporate the land reanalysis data only. The optimal analysis for the land state variables (x_a^{lnd}) is obtained by adding the analysis increment (x'_a^{lnd}) to the background of land ICs (x_b^{lnd}), as expressed in Eq. (7):

$$x_a^{lnd} = x_b^{lnd} + x'_a^{lnd} = x_b^{lnd} + P_x (B_{\alpha}^{-1} + P_y^T P_y)^{-1} P_y^T \tilde{y}'_{obs} \quad (7)$$

In the analysis step, only the land state variables are updated to the optimal analysis (x_a^{lnd}). Subsequently, we proceed with a one-month freely coupled integration of the E3SMv2 model during the forecast step. This integration is initialized from the optimal land ICs (x_a^{lnd}) along with the background fields as the ICs of other components (e.g., atmosphere and ocean). Throughout this one-month free integration, the interactions among the model components indirectly enhance the background states of these components (e.g., atmosphere and ocean) for the next assimilation window due to the more realistic land state variables. Moreover, this coupled integration also contributes to the balance between the ICs of different components.

2.4 4DVar-based WCLDA System

The 4DVar-based WCLDA system is developed to assimilate the monthly mean soil moisture and

252 temperature data from the GLDAS analysis dataset into the land component of E3SMv2 using the DRP-
253 4DVar method. Two sets of numerical experiments are conducted to evaluate the performance of land
254 data assimilation in the WCLDA system. The control simulation (CTRL) is a 37-year freely coupled
255 integration driven by observed external forcings (e.g., solar radiation, greenhouse gas and aerosol
256 concentrations) from 1980 to 2016. In the freely coupled simulation, the various components of the Earth
257 system model, namely the atmosphere, land, river, ocean, and sea ice, interact dynamically without any
258 constraints. The observed external forcing mainly acts on the atmospheric component and then influences
259 other components (e.g., land surface, ocean, and sea ice) through their coupling with the atmosphere.
260 CTRL provides the benchmark for assessing the performance of the WCLDA system. The assimilation
261 experiment (Assim) is conducted from 1980 to 2016 based on the WCLDA system in which the GLDAS
262 data are assimilated into the land state variables from the first to the tenth layer with a one-month
263 assimilation window under the coupled modeling framework. The effectiveness of the WCLDA system
264 is evaluated through the comparison between Assim and CTRL. In both Assim and CTRL, the transient-
265 historical external forcings are prescribed following the CMIP6 protocol (Eyring et al., 2016).

266 The flowchart of the 4DVar-based WCLDA system is illustrated in Figure 1. The DRP-4DVar
267 method incorporates three inputs: model background, observational innovation and 30 perturbation
268 samples. First, the E3SMv2 model is executed for one month, during which state variables such as model
269 background (x_b), observational operator (H) and observational background (y_b) are stored. The model
270 background (x_b) denotes the monthly initial states before assimilation, and the observational operator (H)
271 represents a one-month integration by the coupled model to generate monthly mean model outputs (y_b).
272 Second, upon completion of the one-month coupled run, the observational innovation (\tilde{y}'_{obs}) is determined
273 by calculating the differences in soil moisture and temperature between the monthly mean GLDAS data
274 (y_{obs}) and the model outputs (y_b). From the 100-year sample database of the E3SMv2 PI-CTRL
275 simulation, 30 samples of monthly mean perturbation (\tilde{y}') are chosen with the highest absolute correlation
276 with the observational innovation. The corresponding 30 monthly IC samples (x') are also obtained.
277 Finally, the analysis increment is generated in the sample space and the optimal analysis (x_a) is calculated
278 using the DRP-4DVar algorithm.

279 The schematic diagram in Figure 2 outlines the assimilation process of the 4DVar-based WCLDA

280 system in E3SMv2. The incorporation of GLDAS data into the E3SMv2 model consists of the analysis
281 step and the forecast step. In the analysis step, the differences between monthly mean GLDAS data and
282 model outputs are calculated and utilized to produce the optimal assimilation analysis at the beginning of
283 a one-month assimilation window. Subsequently, in the forecast step, this optimal assimilation analysis is
284 used as the land ICs combined with the background ICs for other components to conduct one-month
285 forecast using the E3SMv2 model. This forecast generates the backgrounds of all model components for
286 the next assimilation window. As a result, the forecasted backgrounds for all components are influenced
287 by the land reanalysis information incorporated into the ICs of the land component. In general, when the
288 coupled model is used in the forecast step while the optimal assimilation analysis is updated separately
289 for the respective component, the assimilation approach is identified as WCDA (Penny et al., 2019; Zhang
290 et al., 2020).

291 The detailed assimilation process mainly consists of three steps within each one-month assimilation
292 window: 1) the E3SMv2 model is initially executed for one month to generate the simulated monthly
293 mean soil moisture and temperature (y_b^{lnd}); 2) the observational innovation (y'_{obs}) is obtained through
294 subtracting the model simulation (y_b^{lnd}) from the monthly mean observation (y_{obs}^{lnd}). This innovation is
295 then applied to formulate the optimal assimilation analysis of land surface (x_a^{lnd}) at the beginning of the
296 assimilation window through the DRP-4DVar method; 3) the E3SMv2 model is rewound to the start of
297 the month and the second one-month model run is executed using the optimal ICs (x_a) to generate the
298 background for the next assimilation window. Due to multi-component interactions during the one-month
299 freely coupled integration, the land reanalysis information can potentially benefit other components (e.g.,
300 atmosphere and ocean) in the coupled modeling framework (Li et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2022). To assimilate
301 the monthly mean GLDAS product, fully coupled integration by the E3SMv2 model is performed twice
302 within each one-month assimilation window: first to generate the observational innovation by computing
303 the differences between the GLDAS data and model outputs for analysis, and second to forecast the
304 backgrounds of all components for the next assimilation window. When the fully coupled model is
305 executed for the second one-month run, the land reanalysis information is transferred to the other
306 components through multi-component interactions. This approach is similar to previous studies that
307 employed the "two-step" scheme in which the land model integration is performed twice within the same

308 month to assimilate the monthly GRACE-based TWS observations (Houborg et al., 2012; Girotto et al.,
 309 2016).

310

311 **2.5 Evaluation Metrics**

312 The reduction rate of the cost function is a significant metric for verifying the effectiveness of the
 313 WCLDA system and evaluating the extent of reanalysis information assimilated by the coupled model,
 314 which is formulated as:

$$315 \quad \begin{cases} \frac{J_1 - J_0}{J_0} \times 100\% \\ J_0 = \frac{1}{2} (y_{obs} - y_b)^T R^{-1} (y_{obs} - y_b) \\ J_1 = \frac{1}{2} (y_{obs} - y_a)^T R^{-1} (y_{obs} - y_a) \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

316 where J_0 and J_1 denote the cost function before and after assimilation respectively, y_{obs} represents the
 317 GLDAS data, y_a denotes the monthly mean analyses, y_b is the observation-space background, and R is
 318 defined as the observation error covariance matrix. The observation error covariance matrix R can be
 319 determined statistically by estimating the variance and covariance of the GLDAS data. Negative value
 320 for this metric indicates that reanalysis information has been correctly incorporated into the model
 321 variables.

322 Following Yin et al. (2014), the assimilation efficiency (AE) index is defined to evaluate the efficiency
 323 of the WCLDA system as follows:

$$324 \quad AE = \frac{RMSE_{Assim}}{RMSE_{CTRL}} - 1 \quad (9)$$

325 In this equation, $RMSE_{Assim}$ is the root mean square error (RMSE) between the analysis value from
 326 Assim and the reference data, while $RMSE_{CTRL}$ represents the RMSE between CTRL and the reference
 327 data. Negative (positive) AE value indicates improvements (degradations) by the assimilation. In the
 328 following sections, we use the GLDAS data as the main reference data to verify the correctness of the
 329 WCLDA system, but some analyses are also performed using AMSR surface soil moisture and MODIS
 330 land surface temperature as the reference data.

331

332 **3 Results**

333 **3.1 Evaluation of the cost function**

334 Figure 3 displays the time series of the monthly reduction rate of the cost function in the 4DEnVar-
335 based WCLDA system. In the first month, the reduction rate reaches approximately 26.06% in Assim.
336 Over the subsequent months, Assim maintains the average reduction rate of 7.73% throughout the entire
337 37-year period. Furthermore, negative reduction rates are observed in 98.65% of the total months,
338 indicating the effectiveness of the WCLDA system. These results suggest that the WCLDA system is
339 correctly implemented, with GLDAS data successfully assimilated into the coupled model.

340

341 **3.2 Evaluation of the AE index**

342 The spatial pattern of the AE index for soil moisture at different depths is depicted in Figure 4. The
343 AE value exhibits negative signal in most areas for total ten soil layers, suggesting the reduction in RMSE
344 for soil moisture after assimilation. Significant improvements appear over North America, South America,
345 southern Africa, Europe, and Asia. However, assimilation performance is degraded in the northern part of
346 Russia and northern Africa. This is consistent with the findings in other studies that assimilation updates
347 in northern Russia are limited due to the complexities of accurately representing frozen ground and snow
348 processes in high latitudes (Edwards et al., 2007; Ireson et al., 2013). As surface soil moisture is highly
349 susceptible to atmospheric conditions, assimilation performance of surface soil moisture is limited by the
350 accuracy of atmospheric forcing. Furthermore, some degradations found in the deep layers could be
351 attributed to the substantial influence of various terrestrial factors, such as subsurface runoff and
352 interactions with groundwater, similar to the findings in previous studies (Liu and Mishra, 2017; Zeng
353 and Decker, 2009).

354 Figure 5 shows the spatial distribution of the AE index for soil temperature from surface to deep
355 layers. Most grid cells from the ten soil layers are dominated by negative AE signals, indicating improved
356 performance for soil temperature after assimilation. Moreover, the spatial patterns across different soil
357 layers are highly consistent with each other and exhibit similar magnitudes in most areas. Notable
358 improvements are observed in central Europe, South America, eastern Russia, and large parts of Eurasia
359 and North America. In contrast, slight degradations appear over Southeast Asia and along the northern
360 fringes of Africa. This may be partly related to model uncertainties and possible atmospheric noise, as
361 shown by many past studies (Kwon et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2020).

362 We further perform an analysis of the spatial pattern of the AE index for surface soil moisture and
363 land surface temperature between satellite data and model simulations (Figure A1). For surface soil
364 moisture, the comparison with AMSR data suggests that the majority of global regions exhibit reduced
365 RMSE after assimilation. The reduction of RMSE is pronounced in central North America, South America,
366 southern Africa, Australia, and Europe. However, in high-latitude areas, significant degradations are
367 observed in northern Russia, which may be possibly related to model deficiencies in simulating the
368 complex frozen ground and snow processes (Edwards et al., 2007; Ireson et al., 2013). Regarding land
369 surface temperature, improved performances are evident over South America, Australia, southern Africa,
370 and large parts of Eurasia when compared to MODIS data. In contrast, some degradations appear over
371 parts of North America and central Asia, which still require further improvement.

372

373 **3.3 Evaluation of the correlation**

374 Figure 6 displays the spatial patterns of the differences in temporal correlations for soil moisture
375 between Assim and CTRL with GLDAS data across different soil layers. The majority of global regions
376 in Assim exhibit higher correlations from the first to the tenth layer compared with CTRL, suggesting the
377 overall good performance of the WCLDA system. Enhanced correlations in deep soil layers are more
378 pronounced than in shallow layers, which may be attributed to the longer memory of soil processes in the
379 deeper soil layers (Wang et al., 2010). Improved correlations appear over North America, central Europe,
380 Asia, and parts of Africa. However, some scattered areas show slight degradations, such as northern South
381 America, central Africa, and eastern Russia. Overall, Assim outperforms CTRL with higher correlation
382 (Figure 6) and lower RMSE (Figure 4) in many regions, such as Europe, North America, southern South
383 America, and South Asia.

384 The correlation differences in soil temperature between Assim and CTRL from surface to deep
385 layers are shown in Figure 7. Assim yields improved correlations from the first to the tenth layer across
386 the majority of global regions. Furthermore, similar spatial patterns and magnitudes are observed in the
387 performance of different soil layers, implying the significant heat transfer from the surface to deep zone
388 that constrains soil temperature across the soil column. Notable improvements are located over South
389 America, central Africa, Australia, central Europe, and East Asia. Nevertheless, some degradations

390 appear over North America, western Europe, and Northeast China. Assim shows superior performance
391 over CTRL for soil temperature with higher correlation (Figure 7) and lower RMSE (Figure 5) in many
392 regions, including South America, central Europe, Australia, and central Africa.

393

394 **3.4 RMSE and bias of the global mean soil moisture and temperature**

395 The vertical distributions of RMSE differences between Assim and CTRL for soil moisture and
396 temperature are evaluated in Figure 8. Compared with CTRL, Assim shows noticeable improvements
397 with reduced RMSE for both soil moisture and temperature in all ten soil layers. For soil moisture, the
398 reduction of RMSE increases with depth from the upper to deep soil layers, reaching its maximum at the
399 tenth layer. This could be attributed to the longer soil memory in deep layers than shallow layers. For soil
400 temperature, the reduction of RMSE exhibits similar magnitude from the surface to deep soil layers, which
401 may be explained by the significant heat transfer across different soil layers in regulating soil temperature
402 throughout the soil column.

403 Figure 9 shows the time evolutions of the vertically averaged global mean soil moisture and
404 temperature bias and RMSE differences. For soil moisture bias (Figure 9a), CTRL exhibits dry biases
405 during the first twenty years and wet biases afterwards. In contrast, Assim shows smaller biases during
406 both periods by reducing the dry bias prior to ~2000 and the wet bias thereafter. Assim also exhibits
407 reduced RMSE (Figure 9b) for soil moisture throughout the entire 37-year period. For soil temperature
408 bias (Figure 9c), CTRL and Assim display comparable performances, possibly due to the small magnitude
409 of model deviation in soil temperature. The RMSE differences (Figure 9d) suggest that Assim decreases
410 the RMSE for soil temperature in the majority of months, with 74.10% of the total months in Assim
411 exhibiting lower RMSE than CTRL. In summary, the superior performance for both soil moisture and
412 temperature in Assim demonstrates that land reanalysis information has been effectively incorporated into
413 the model variables through the WCLDA system.

414 Noticeably, the simulated soil temperature and soil moisture display similar long-term trends, with
415 cold and dry biases before ~2000 and warm and wet biases afterwards. The soil temperature biases may
416 be related to the global surface air temperature simulated in E3SMv2, which is notably too cold compared
417 to the observed record during the 1970s and 1980s while the model warms up quickly after ~year 2000

418 (see Figure 23 of Golaz et al., 2022). The global surface air temperature biases during the past decades in
419 E3SMv1 and v2 have been attributed to the strong aerosol forcing in the model (Golaz et al., 2019; 2022).
420 As the global mean precipitation scales with the surface temperature at ~2% per degree (Allen and Ingram,
421 2002), model biases in surface temperature are reflected in biases in precipitation and hence soil moisture,
422 resulting in similar long-term trends between soil temperature and soil moisture biases in the simulations.

423

424 **3.5 2012 U.S. Midwest Drought**

425 To further evaluate the performance of the WCLDA system, we briefly investigate the impact of land
426 data assimilation on simulating the temporal evolution of the U.S. Midwest drought in 2012. Time series
427 of soil moisture percentiles over the Midwest (36° -50° N, 102° -88° W) demonstrate significant
428 improvements by Assim in reproducing the time evolution of agricultural drought in 2012 compared with
429 CTRL (Figure 10). From ERA-Interim data, the agricultural drought starts in August 2011, follows by a
430 brief relief in early spring of 2012, peaks in September 2012, and recovers by January 2013. The drought
431 develops rapidly between May and July 2012 over a wide-spread area including the central and
432 midwestern U.S. This flash drought caused significant agricultural damages and economic losses.

433 The free running CTRL experiment fails to simulate the temporal evolution of the 2012 Midwest
434 drought, with a correlation coefficient between CTRL and ERA-Interim of only 0.27. The onset and peak
435 of the drought are remarkably well captured by Assim, although the drought recovery occurs two months
436 later than observed. The correlation coefficient of the Assim time series with ERA-Interim is 0.56, which
437 is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. Our results highlight the importance of land surface
438 states for drought lifecycle, with the potential to improve future drought predictions through the
439 implementation of the WCLDA system.

440

441 **4 Conclusions**

442 In this study, we developed the 4DVar-based WCLDA system for the E3SMv2 model and
443 evaluated the performance of this WCLDA system. The DRP-4DVar method was employed for
444 implementing 4DVar using the ensemble method rather than the adjoint technique. Special attention is
445 paid to directly assimilating monthly mean land reanalysis data in this system without interpolating to

446 every time step. Within each one-month assimilation window, we assimilate land reanalysis information
447 into the coupled model without breaking the land-atmosphere interaction, which is important for the
448 WCLDA system to be used to understand the potential sources of predictability provided by land.

449 Monthly mean anomalies of soil moisture and temperature from the GLDAS reanalysis are
450 assimilated from 1980 to 2016 through the WCLDA system, and its performance is evaluated using
451 multiple metrics, including the cost function, AE index, correlation, RMSE and bias. Compared with
452 CTRL, the cost function is reduced by Assim in most months, suggesting that the GLDAS reanalysis data
453 has been effectively incorporated into the model. In terms of both soil moisture and temperature, Assim
454 outperforms CTRL with lower RMSE and higher temporal correlation in many regions, especially in
455 South America, central Africa, Australia, and large parts of Eurasia. For soil moisture bias, Assim further
456 decreases the dry bias during the first twenty years and the wet bias thereafter. It is noteworthy that the
457 subseasonal-to-seasonal time evolution of soil moisture percentiles during the 2012 U.S. Midwest drought
458 can be quite well captured in Assim, underscoring the significant role of land surface states in drought
459 propagation.

460 Our current WCLDA system has some limitations and requires future improvements. Future
461 enhancements of our WCLDA system will explore the assimilation of additional land products,
462 particularly those derived from satellite observations. The incorporation of such satellite-based datasets
463 is expected to further improve the performance of the WCLDA system. It is possible that the influence of
464 the WCLDA system on atmospheric processes may be limited in some domains due to uncertainties of
465 the model parameterizations, particularly in representing land-atmosphere interactions (Zhou et al., 2023).
466 For example, in humid regions where the evaporation process is predominantly energy-limited, the
467 assimilation of soil moisture tends to exert limited influence. Instead, the assimilation of soil temperature
468 may yield more substantial improvements. This underscores the importance of the unique characteristics
469 and constraints presented by complicated regional conditions in the application of assimilation processes.
470 To this end, the application of the WCLDA system would motivate future work to better understand the
471 roles of the land surface in climate variability and provide a foundational resource for future predictability
472 studies by the E3SM community.

473

474 *Code and data availability.* The E3SMv2 source codes used in this study can be accessed on Zenodo at
475 <https://zenodo.org/record/8194050>. The GLDAS monthly soil moisture and soil temperature data are
476 available online (<https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?keywords=GLDAS%20monthly&page=1>). The
477 MODIS monthly land surface temperature data can be downloaded from the website
478 (https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/MOD11CM1D_005/summary). The AMSR monthly surface soil
479 moisture data are available from <https://doi.org/10.11888/Soil.tpd.270960>. The ERA-Interim monthly
480 soil moisture data are available at [https://apps.ecmwf.int/archive-](https://apps.ecmwf.int/archive-catalogue/?levtype=sfc&type=an&class=ei&stream=moda&expver=1)
481 [catalogue/?levtype=sfc&type=an&class=ei&stream=moda&expver=1](https://apps.ecmwf.int/archive-catalogue/?levtype=sfc&type=an&class=ei&stream=moda&expver=1). The model data used in this study
482 can be found on Zenodo at <https://zenodo.org/record/8148737>.

483

484 *Author contributions.* LRL initiated this study. PS and LRL designed the experiments. PS developed the
485 data assimilation code and performed the simulations. BW provided advice on the data assimilation
486 technique and KZ and SZ provided assistance with the E3SM model. PS and LRL analyzed and
487 interpreted the data. PS and LRL wrote the paper. BW, KZ, SMH, and SZ contributed to the revision.

488

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490

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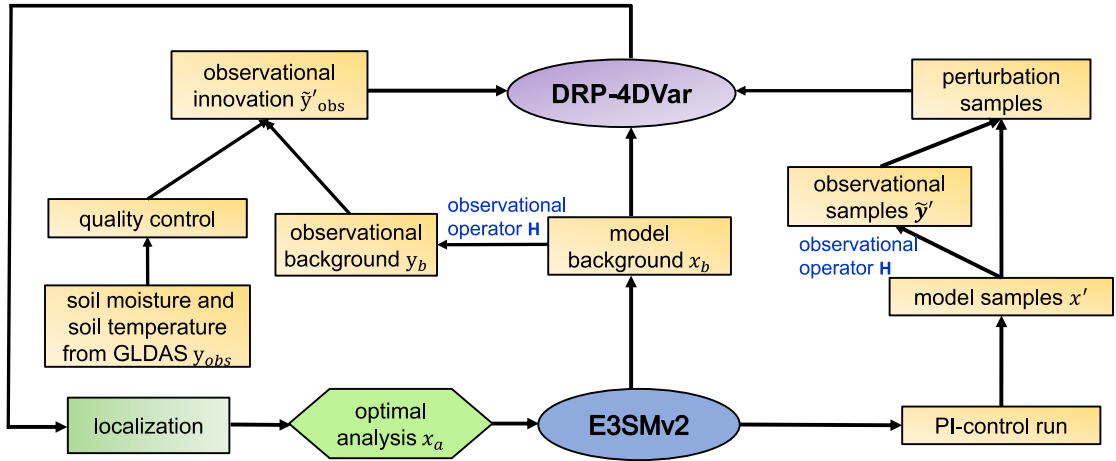
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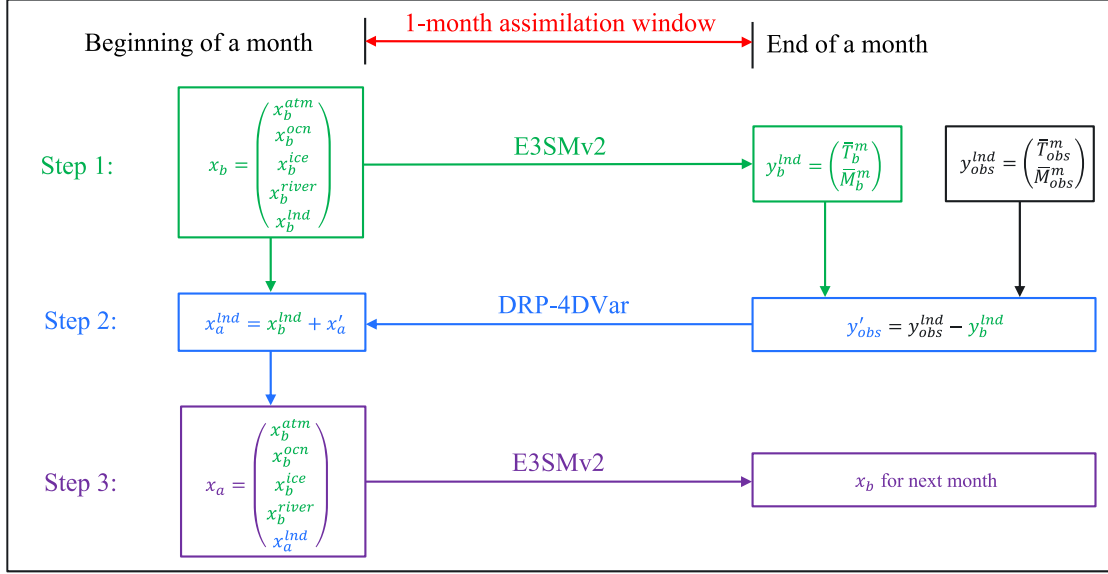
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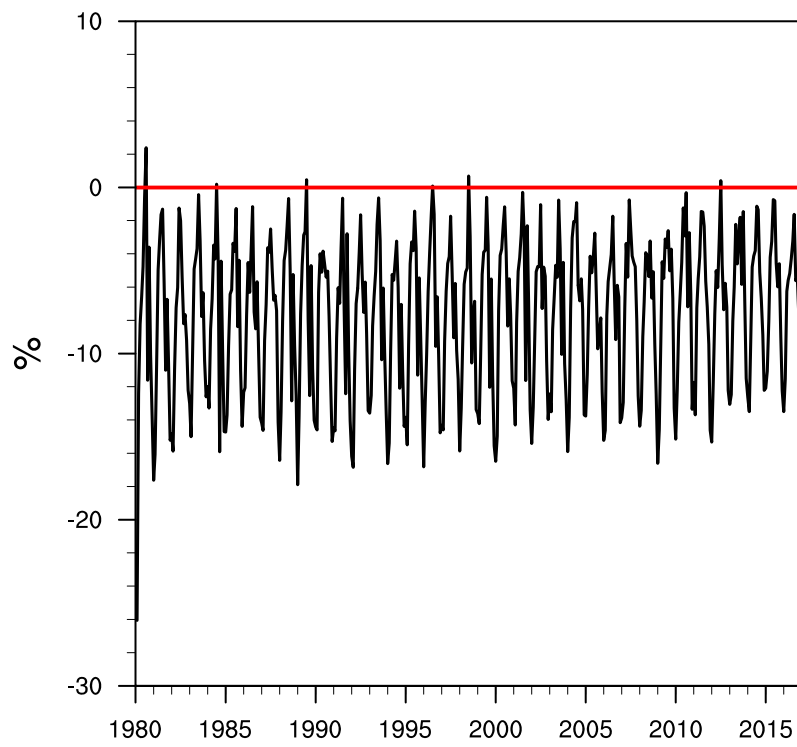
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Figure 1. Flowchart of the 4DVar-based WCLDA system in E3SMv2 based on the DRP-4DVar method.



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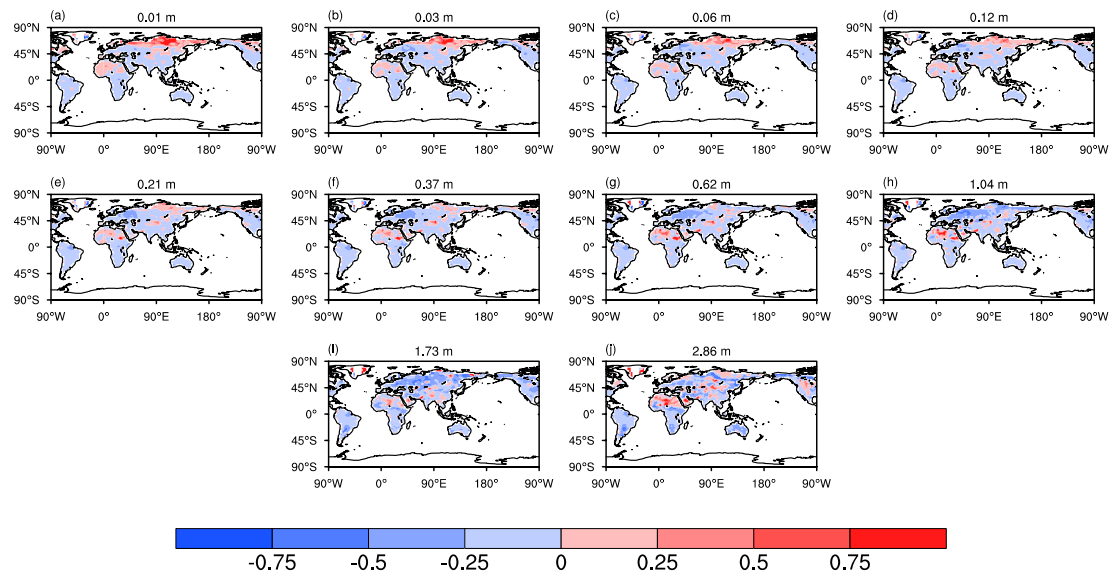
777 **Figure 2.** Schematic flowchart of the 4DEnVar-based WCLDA system. The beginning of a month is at
 778 0000 UTC on the first day of the month, and the end of the month is at 0000 UTC on the first day of the
 779 next month. x_b denotes the background vector including the backgrounds of all E3SMv2 components
 780 (atmosphere (x_b^{atm}), ocean (x_b^{ocn}), sea ice (x_b^{ice}), river transport (x_b^{river}) and land surface (x_b^{lnd})). x_a
 781 consists of the assimilation analysis of land surface (x_a^{lnd}) and the backgrounds of other components.
 782 y_b^{lnd} represents the simulated monthly mean soil temperature (\bar{T}_b^m) and moisture (\bar{M}_b^m) by E3SMv2 using
 783 x_b as the initial condition. y_{obs}^{lnd} denotes the monthly mean GLDAS data of soil temperature (\bar{T}_{obs}^m) and
 784 moisture (\bar{M}_{obs}^m). y'_{obs} denotes the observational innovation, which is the difference between the GLDAS
 785 data (y_{obs}^{lnd}) and the observational background (y_b^{lnd}).



786

787 **Figure 3.** Time series of the reduction rate of the cost function from 1980 to 2016 in the 4DEnVar-based

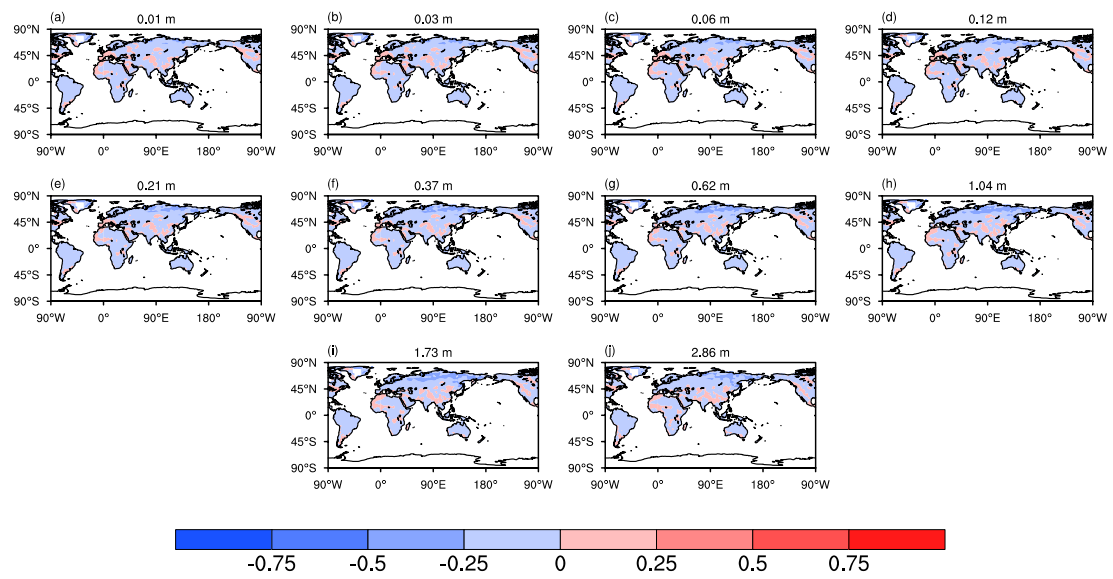
788 WCLDA system.



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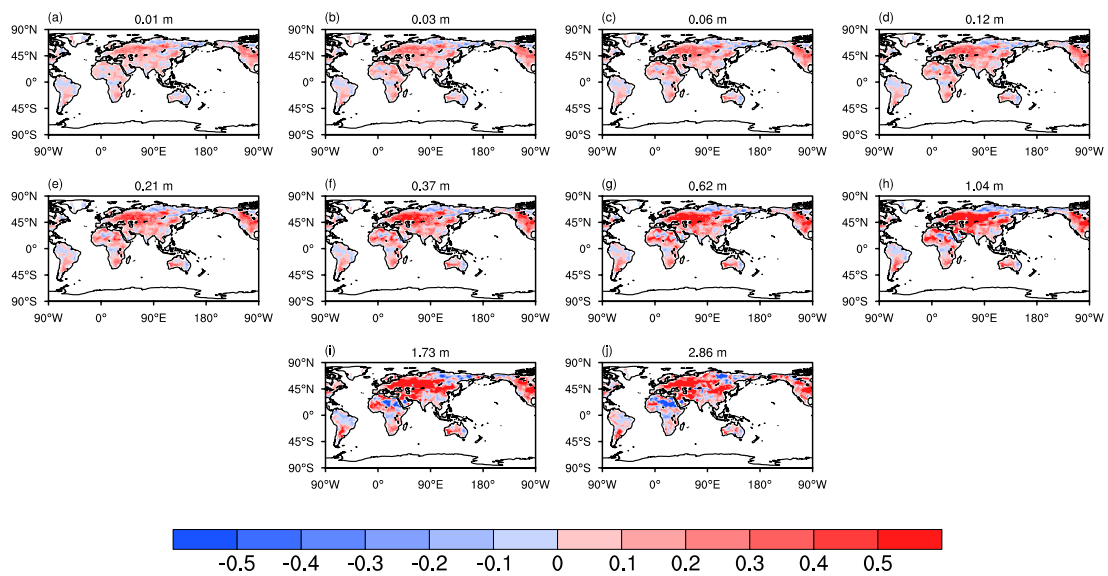
790 **Figure 4.** Spatial distribution of the AE index for soil moisture from the surface to deep layers during

791 the 1980-2016 period. The number at the top center denotes the depth of each soil layer.



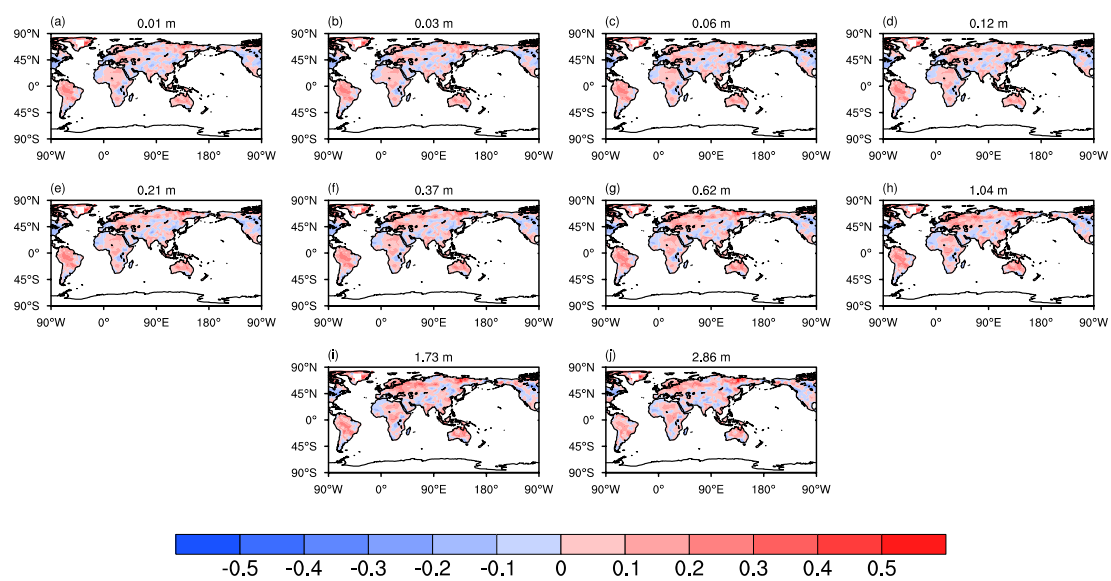
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793 **Figure 5.** Same as in Figure 4, but for soil temperature.



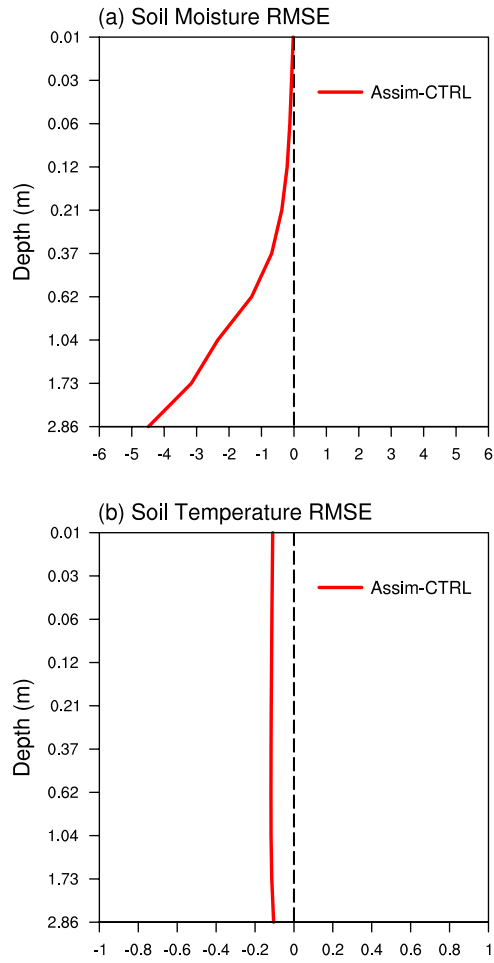
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795 **Figure 6.** Differences between correlations of soil moisture in Assim and CTRL with the GLDAS data
 796 from the surface to deep layers for the period of 1980-2016. The number at the top center denotes the
 797 depth of each soil layer.



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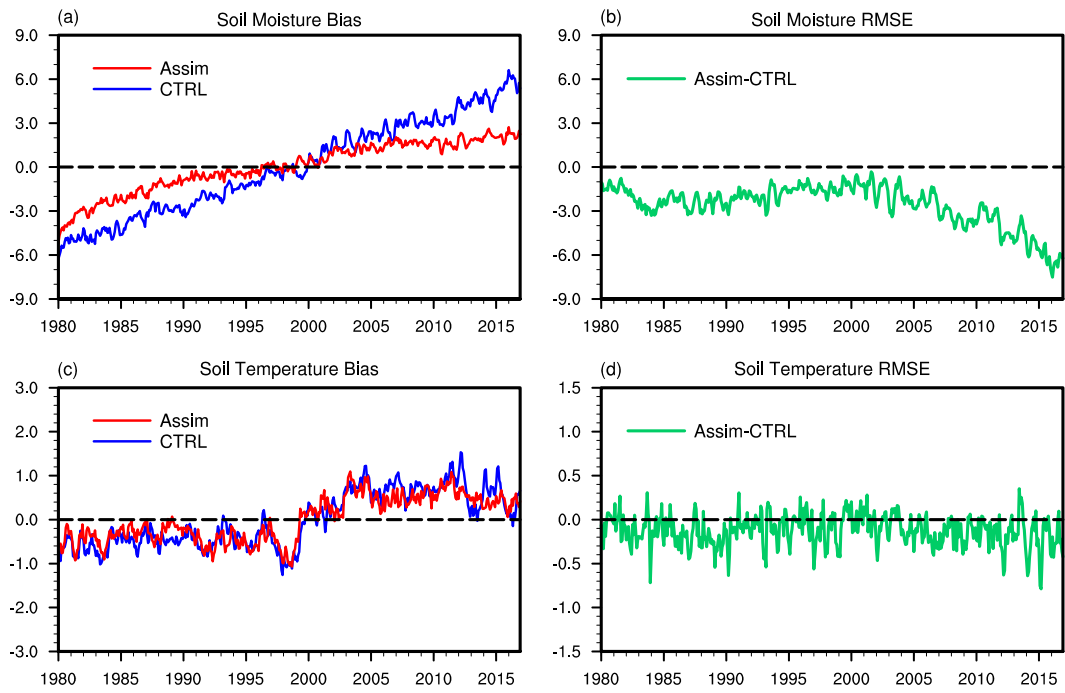
799 **Figure 7.** Same as in Figure 6, but for soil temperature.



800

801 **Figure 8.** Vertical distributions of RMSE differences (Assim minus CTRL) for (a) soil moisture and (b)

802 soil temperature averaged over the global land during the 1980-2016 period.

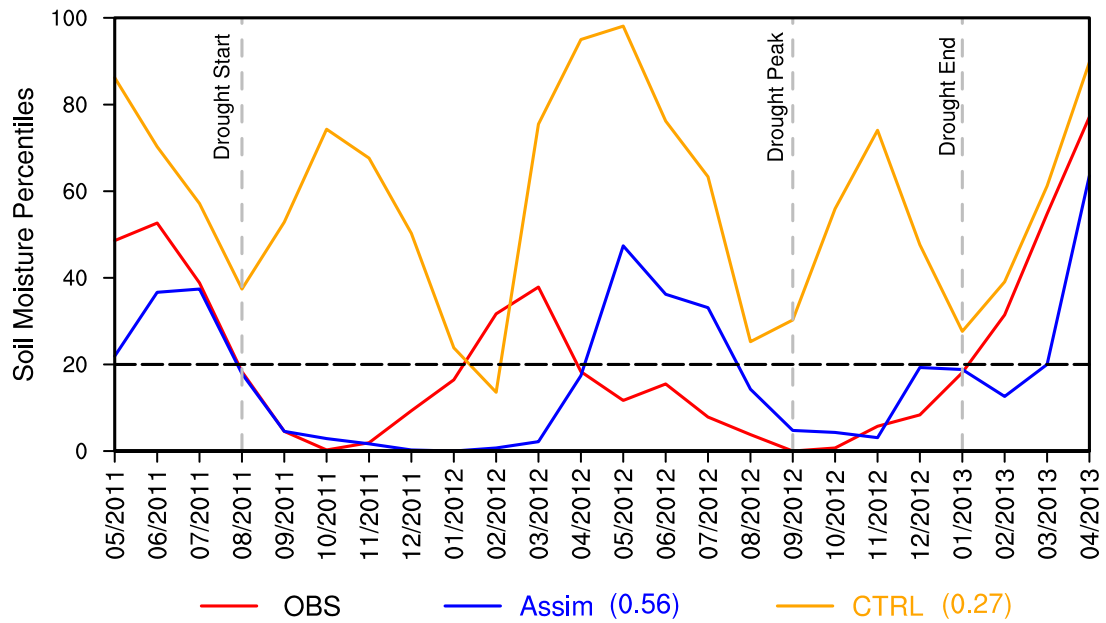


803

804 **Figure 9.** Time series of the vertically averaged global mean soil moisture and temperature bias (left) for

805 Assim (red line) and CTRL (blue line), and RMSE differences (right, green line) between Assim and

806 CTRL from 1980 to 2016.



807

808 **Figure 10.** Time series of soil moisture percentiles between May 2011 and April 2013 during the 2012

809 U.S. Midwest drought. Red line: observation, blue line: Assim, orange line: CTRL. The correlation

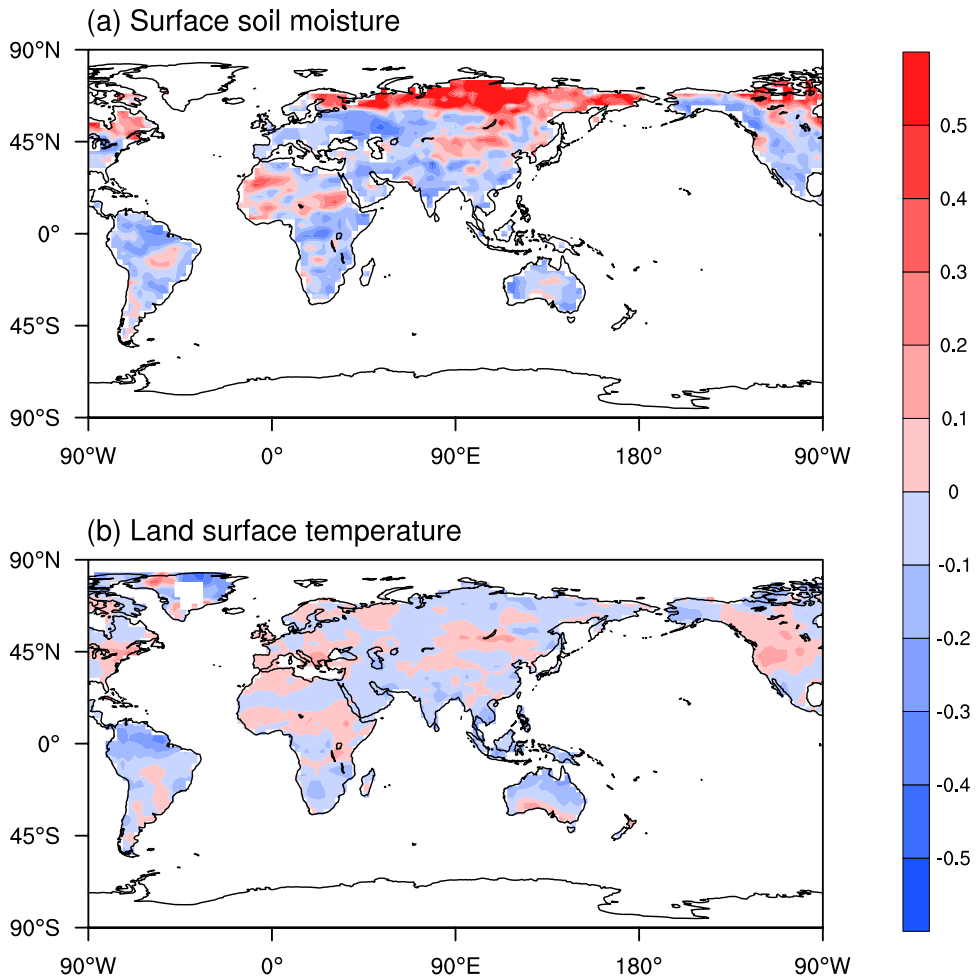
810 coefficients of Assim and CTRL with observations are also shown. The three vertical dashed lines mark

811 the timing of drought start, drought peak and drought end, respectively. The start of the agricultural

812 drought is defined as the month when soil moisture falls below the 20th percentile. The soil moisture

813 percentiles are averaged over the U.S. Midwest (36°-50°N, 102°-88°W). The observed soil moisture is

814 derived from ERA-Interim monthly soil moisture data.



816

817 **Figure A1.** Spatial distribution of the AE index for (a) surface soil moisture and (b) land surface

818 temperature during the 2003-2014 period. The surface soil moisture and land surface temperature are

819 derived from monthly AMSR and MODIS satellite data, respectively.